

# *Prediction of enteric methane production, yield and intensity of beef cattle using an intercontinental database*

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# Title

Prediction of enteric methane production, yield and intensity of beef cattle using an intercontinental database

## Running Head

Predicting enteric methane from beef cattle

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## Abstract

Enteric methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) production attributable to beef cattle contributes to global greenhouse gas emissions. Reliably estimating this contribution requires extensive CH<sub>4</sub> emission data from beef cattle under different management conditions worldwide. The objectives were to: 1) predict CH<sub>4</sub> production (g d<sup>-1</sup> animal<sup>-1</sup>), yield [g (kg dry matter intake; DMI)<sup>-1</sup>] and intensity [g (kg average daily gain)<sup>-1</sup>] using an intercontinental database (data from Europe, North America, Brazil, Australia and South Korea); 2) assess the impact of geographic region, and of higher- and lower-forage diets. Linear models were developed by incrementally adding covariates. A *K*-fold cross-validation indicated that a CH<sub>4</sub> production equation using only DMI that was fitted to all available data had a root mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of observed mean) of 31.2%. Subsets containing data with  $\geq 25\%$  and  $\leq 18\%$  dietary forage contents had an RMSPE of 30.8 and 34.2%, with the all-data CH<sub>4</sub> production equation, whereas these errors decreased to 29.3 and 28.4%, respectively, when using CH<sub>4</sub> prediction equations fitted to these subsets. The RMSPE of the  $\geq 25\%$  forage subset further decreased to 24.7% when using multiple regression. Europe- and North America-specific subsets predicted by the best performing  $\geq 25\%$  forage multiple regression equation had RMSPE of 24.5 and 20.4%, whereas these errors were 24.5 and 20.0% with region-specific equations, respectively. The developed equations had less RMSPE than extant equations evaluated for all data (22.5 vs. 23.2%), for higher-forage (21.2 vs. 23.1%), but not for the lower-forage subsets (28.4 vs. 27.9%). Splitting the dataset by forage content did not improve CH<sub>4</sub> yield or intensity predictions. Predicting beef cattle CH<sub>4</sub> production using energy conversion factors, as applied by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, indicated that adequate forage content-based and region-specific energy conversion factors improve prediction accuracy and are preferred in national or global inventories.

71

72 **Keywords:** empirical modeling, geographical region, forage content, dietary variables, methane

73 emission

## 1. Introduction

The livestock sector emits about 7.1 gigatonnes of CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents of greenhouse gases per year, which represented approximately 14.5% of total global anthropogenic greenhouse gas emissions in 2005 (Gerber *et al.*, 2013). Cattle emitted 4.6 gigatonnes CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents, of which 2.5 gigatonnes originated from beef and 2.1 gigatonnes from dairy cattle, whereas small ruminants and buffalos emitted 0.47 and 0.62 gigatonnes CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents, respectively. Methane from enteric fermentation contributed about 45% of the combined CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents emissions from the two cattle types. World-wide beef cattle systems produced 35 million tonnes of meat, whereas dairy cattle systems produced 27 million tonnes. Meat protein greenhouse gas emission intensity from beef cattle, and combined meat and milk protein intensity from dairy cattle vary from about 200 to 1100, and 50 to 350 kg CO<sub>2</sub> equivalents per kg edible protein, respectively, depending on the region of the world (Opio *et al.*, 2013). Based on expected farming and consumer lifestyle practices and the predicted world population growth, compared to 1995, global enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions are predicted to increase by 70% by 2055 (Popp *et al.*, 2010). To offset this increase and to deal with the highly variable and typically greater CH<sub>4</sub> emission intensity of beef cattle systems, accurate prediction of beef cattle CH<sub>4</sub> emissions across regions are urgently required.

Various beef cattle CH<sub>4</sub> prediction equations, for which a variety of diet and animal characteristics were used as covariates, based on treatments means (*e.g.*, Ellis *et al.*, 2009; Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.*, 2017a) or individual animal data (Ellis *et al.*, 2007; Moraes *et al.*, 2014) have been published. Although the use of individual animal data as applied in the latter two studies contributes to more explained variation of CH<sub>4</sub> production due to dry matter intake (DMI) differences at the animal level, all previously mentioned studies only comprised data from specific geographical locations. In contrast to these equations, which may be appropriate for cattle systems

under similar regional conditions, the widely used Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) methodology recommends a generic CH<sub>4</sub> energy conversion factor ( $Y_m$ ) without any adjustment for different geographical locations (IPCC, 2014). The  $Y_m$  quantifies enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission as a fraction of the gross energy intake and discriminates between diets with forage contents of  $\leq 10$  and  $> 10\%$  DM, with  $Y_m$  being 3.0% and 6.5% of the gross energy intake, respectively. However, more complex equations accounting for dietary nutrient composition and individual animal characteristics in addition to total feed intake may perform better than those that ignore these covariates for various cattle categories (Ellis *et al.*, 2007, 2009; Moraes *et al.*, 2014; Santiago-Suarez *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, more complex beef cattle CH<sub>4</sub> prediction equations that draw from databases with a broad range of diets and geographic conditions may more accurately predict global CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. Publications of inventories that investigated cattle enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in certain countries or regions (*e.g.*, Basarab *et al.*, 2005; Kebreab *et al.*, 2008; Bannink *et al.*, 2011; Castelan-Ortega *et al.*, 2014; Charmley *et al.*, 2016) compared to an intercontinental evaluation (*e.g.*, Niu *et al.*, 2018) confirm the utility of the latter approach.

The objectives of the current study were: 1) to collate an intercontinental database of enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production of individual animal records of beef cattle; 2) to determine the key variables for predicting beef cattle enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production ( $\text{g d}^{-1} \text{ animal}^{-1}$ ), yield [ $\text{g (kg DMI)}^{-1}$ ] and intensity [ $\text{g (kg average daily body weight gain)}^{-1}$ ] and their respective relationships; 3) to develop and cross-validate intercontinental and region-specific models, and models for lower- and higher-forage diets.

## 2. Materials and Methods

### 2.1 Database

The ‘GLOBAL NETWORK’ project is an international collaborative initiative of animal scientists (<http://animalscience.psu.edu/fnn>; accessed May 16, 2017). All animal scientists with an interest in greenhouse gas research and with access to CH<sub>4</sub> measurements from beef cattle were invited to collaborate and contribute data to this collaborative CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation data analysis. The resultant beef cattle CH<sub>4</sub> database that was developed from this initiative contains 2015 individual beef cattle records from 52 studies conducted from 1969 to 2015 by research entities from Europe (*n* = 869 from 18 studies), North America (*n* = 649 from 14 studies), Brazil (*n* = 313 from 12 studies), Australia (*n* = 174 from 7 studies) and South Korea (*n* = 10 from 1 study). The European studies were conducted in the UK (*n* = 313 from 7 studies), Switzerland (*n* = 96 from 1 study), Belgium (*n* = 72 from 4 studies), Ireland (*n* = 147 from 2 studies) and France (*n* = 241 from 4 studies). Eleven North American studies were from the United States (*n* = 492), and 3 were conducted in Canada (*n* = 157). The database includes records of enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production along with corresponding DMI, dietary gross energy, crude protein, ether extract (EE), neutral detergent fiber (NDF), starch, ash and forage contents, average daily body weight gain (ADG) and body weight (BW). The database comprised a broad variety of beef cattle that included growing and finishing steers, bulls and heifers, pregnant heifers, and pregnant, non-pregnant, dry and lactating beef cows. Various pure beef breeds and crossbreeds were included, *viz.*, Aberdeen Angus, Blonde d’Aquitaine, Belgian Blue, Brahman, Brown Swiss × Limousin, Charolais, Hanwoo, Holstein × Zebu, Hereford × Angus, Luing and Nellore.

The original studies in the database (complete data bibliography is provided in Supplementary information) investigated the impact of diet composition on enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production or cattle metabolism. However, some studies tested the effect of a specific feed additive, nutrient or the use of hormone supplementation, and the data from these treatments were excluded. The



excluded treatments included rapeseed cake and nitrate (Troy *et al.*, 2015), limestone (Zanetti *et al.*, 2017), Acacia tannins, maca, garlic and lupine seeds (Staerfl *et al.*, 2012), monensin (Caetano *et al.*, 2016, 2018), organosulfur compounds (garlic extracts) (Peiren *et al.*, unpublished) and essential oils (Castro Montoya *et al.*, 2015), lipids (Duthie *et al.*, 2015), dried corn distillers grains (Hünerberg *et al.*, 2013ab), linseed oil and protected fat (Fiorentini *et al.*, 2014), soybean oil and protected fat (Silva *et al.*, 2018), glycerin (Lage *et al.*, 2016), whole soybeans (Rossi *et al.*, 2017), monensin (Hales *et al.*, 2012, 2013, 2014 2015, unpublished; Berndt *et al.*, unpublished), diethylstilbestrol (Rumsey *et al.*, 1981) and growth hormone-releasing factor (Lapierre *et al.*, 1992). After removal of data associated with the aforementioned treatments, 1413 individual records were retained.

Records with missing CH<sub>4</sub> or DMI values were removed from the database; records from respiration chambers in which two animals were housed simultaneously were combined by averaging the CH<sub>4</sub> and DMI and all other variables regarding the two animals; records from repeated measurements within the same experimental period were averaged over the individual measurements recorded. In total, 1366 individual animal records were subsequently retained. In addition, records from growing cattle with negative ADG, and a study for which DMI varied from 9.0 to 32.5 kg d<sup>-1</sup> (Rooke *et al.*, 2015, unpublished) were discarded from the dataset, leaving 1257 records retained. Finally, studies were screened on the basis of mean CH<sub>4</sub> yield after which two studies, for which the control treatments contained 60 and 82% forage had unrealistically low CH<sub>4</sub> yields of 10.3 and 11.3 g (kg DMI)<sup>-1</sup> (San Vito *et al.*, 2016; De Carvalho *et al.*, 2016), respectively, were considered outliers and removed from the dataset. This resulted in the retention of 1248 records.

## **2.2 Model development**

Production, yield and intensity of CH<sub>4</sub> were predicted by fitting mixed-effects models according to:

$$y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{ij1} + \beta_2 x_{ij2} + \cdots + \beta_k x_{ijk} + s_i + \epsilon_{ij},$$

where  $y_{ij}$  denotes the  $j^{\text{th}}$  response variable of CH<sub>4</sub> production (g d<sup>-1</sup> animal<sup>-1</sup>), CH<sub>4</sub> yield [g (kg DMI)<sup>-1</sup>] or CH<sub>4</sub> intensity [g (kg ADG)<sup>-1</sup>] from the  $i^{\text{th}}$  study;  $\beta_0$  denotes the fixed effect of intercept;  $x_{ij1}$  to  $x_{ijk}$  denote the fixed effects of predictor variables and  $\beta_1$  to  $\beta_k$  are the corresponding slopes;  $s_i$  and  $\epsilon_{ij}$  denote the random effect of study and residual error, respectively, distributed as  $s_i \sim N(0, \sigma_s^2)$ ,  $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, y_{ij}\sigma_e^2)$  for CH<sub>4</sub> production, and  $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2)$  for CH<sub>4</sub> yield and intensity;  $\sigma_s^2$  is the between-study variance,  $\sigma_e^2$  is the residual variance, and  $y_{ij}\sigma_e^2$  is the residual error variance being proportional to the dependent variable.

In order to provide equations that depend on various predictor variables, eight categories of CH<sub>4</sub> production models were developed, of which four used a fixed and another four a selected combination of covariates: DMI only (DMI\_C), DMI and dietary NDF content (DMI+NDF\_C), DMI and dietary starch content (DMI+STA\_C), DMI and dietary EE content (DMI+EE\_C); a selection of DMI and the dietary NDF, starch, forage, EE, crude protein and ash contents (Diet\_C), the Diet\_C covariates plus BW (Animal\_C), the Animal\_C covariates except DMI (Animal\_no\_DMI\_C), and DMI, the dietary NDF and crude protein contents, and BW (Global\_C). Global\_C was exclusively associated with covariates that had few or no missing data points. In addition to these eight categories, CH<sub>4</sub> production was predicted using  $Y_m$  only. The mixed-effects model to estimate  $Y_m$  of this GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 equation only included  $y_{ij}$ ,  $\beta_0$ ,  $s_i$ , and  $\epsilon_{ij}$  of the previously shown model, with  $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2)$ . According to the CH<sub>4</sub> production models, six categories of CH<sub>4</sub> yield prediction models were developed: dietary NDF content only (NDF\_C), dietary starch content only (STA\_C), dietary EE content only (EE\_C); a selection of

the dietary NDF, starch, forage, EE, crude protein and ash contents (Diet\_no\_DMI\_C), the Animal\_no\_DMI\_C covariates, and dietary NDF, forage and crude protein contents and BW (Global\_no\_DMI\_C). Finally, eight categories of CH<sub>4</sub> intensity prediction models were developed: DMI\_C, DMI+NDF\_C, DMI+STA\_C, DMI+EE\_C, Diet\_C, Animal\_C, Animal\_no\_DMI\_C and Global\_C.

Covariates that play a key role in predicting CH<sub>4</sub> production were selected for Diet\_C, Diet\_no\_DMI\_C, Animal\_C, Animal\_no\_DMI\_C, Global\_C and Global\_no\_DMI\_C using a multistep selection approach. Model selection started with all potential covariates associated with the particular model category. Subsequently, one or more next selection steps were performed if not all records without missing values for the selected covariates were used in the previous step. A backward selection approach was applied throughout the different steps, *i.e.*, only covariates selected in a previous step could be selected for the next step. The model selection procedure stopped when the selected covariates were the same as the ones selected in the previous step. With this procedure, a model equation was constructed based on records that contained no missing values for the final selection of covariates and data sufficiency was maximized for the development of model equations throughout the different categories.

The Bayesian information criterion (BIC; *e.g.*, James *et al.*, 2014) was computed for all fitted models. The BIC is a well-known quantitative approach to model selection that favors more parsimonious models over more complex models by penalizing the number of parameters included in the model. Models with the smallest BIC were selected, as a smaller BIC indicates a better tradeoff between the goodness of fit and the number of model parameters. In addition, the presence of multicollinearity of fitted models was examined based on the variance inflation factor. The largest variance inflation factor among all predictor variables was considered as an indicator of

multicollinearity (Kutner *et al.*, 2005). The identified predictor variables were removed from the model one at a time using a stringent variance inflation factor cutoff value of 3 (Zuur *et al.*, 2010). All models were fitted using the *lme* function (Pinheiro and Bates, 2000) of R language and environment for statistical computing (R Core Team 2017; version 3.5.2).

### **2.3 Data handling**

The entire database contained a wide variety of dietary forage contents ( $57.6 \pm 29.8\%$  DM; average  $\pm$  SD), ranging from 8 to 100% DM. The database was split into a higher-forage subset containing the records with  $\geq 25\%$  forage, and a lower-forage subset containing all data with  $\leq 18\%$  forage. No studies tested forage contents between 18 and 25%. Because of the small coefficient of variation, dietary starch could not be selected for the lower-forage Diet\_C, Animal\_C, and Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equations. To explore the geographical impact of CH<sub>4</sub> production, all European, North American and Brazilian higher-forage data were also used as separate subsets. Because of the scarcity of data from Australia and South Korea, no specific equations for the latter two regions were developed. Data from growing and finishing cattle for which ADG was measured were selected for a growing cattle subset, which enabled the development of CH<sub>4</sub> intensity [ $\text{g (kg ADG)}^{-1}$ ] equations. Other outliers were identified using the interquartile range method (Zwillinger and Kokoska, 2000) based on all dependent and independent variables as in Niu *et al.* (2018). A factor of 1.5 for extremes was used in constructing boundaries to identify outliers for dependent variables and a factor of 2.5 for independent variables. Outliers were identified only for the complete database. The CH<sub>4</sub> intensity [ $\text{g (kg ADG)}^{-1}$ ] values were log transformed to stabilize normality before outlier identification. After removal of records with interquartile range identified outliers in the CH<sub>4</sub> production and variables, 1021 records from 114 dietary treatments and 39 studies were retained. Of these records 882 were from 104 treatments

and 38 studies in the higher-forage subset, 139 from 10 treatments and 8 studies from the UK, Ireland, France, Canada and Brazil in the low-forage subset, 307 from 28 treatments and 15 studies in the European higher-forage subset, 394 from 36 treatments and 10 studies the North American higher-forage subset, 104 from 17 treatments and 7 studies the Brazilian higher-forage subset, 72 from 22 treatments and 5 studies from Australia, and 5 from 1 treatment and 1 study from South Korea.

The cleaned dataset used for analysis comprised measurements of enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission that were obtained from respiration chambers ( $n = 676$ ), the GreenFeed system ( $n = 87$ ), and the sulfur hexafluoride (SF<sub>6</sub>) tracer technique ( $n = 258$ ). Animals were either kept in confinement or on pasture ( $n = 991$  vs. 30, respectively). Types of forage frequently used in higher-forage diets included fresh alfalfa, sugarcane, sugarcane bagasse, corn silage, barley straw, whole-crop barley silage, whole-crop wheat silage, grass herbage, elephant grass, grass silage, grass seed hay, grass hay wrapping, timothy and natural grassland hay. Types of forage frequently used in lower-forage diets were barley straw, wheat straw, whole-crop wheat silage, corn silage and whole-crop barley silage. Concentrate ingredients in higher-forage and lower-forage diets included dried distillers grains, barley, canola meal, soybean meal, soybean hulls, crude glycerin, corn grain, cereal by-products, dehydrated alfalfa, dehydrated beet pulp, citrus pulp, wheat distillers grains, whole grain oats and minerals.

#### ***2.4 Cross-validation and model evaluation***

The predictive accuracy of the developed CH<sub>4</sub> prediction models was evaluated using a leave-one-out cross-validation (*e.g.*, James *et al.*, 2014), in which all individual studies were consecutively taken as the testing set for model evaluation, while all remaining studies were taken as the training set for model fitting. Currently, most national enteric CH<sub>4</sub> inventories are based on

energy conversion factors recommended by the IPCC (2006), which were evaluated, *i.e.*, not cross-validated. The IPCC models and the developed models throughout all categories were, if applicable, evaluated on the various (sub)sets using a combination of model evaluation metrics. Furthermore, equations from Yan *et al.* (2000, 2009) based on data from Northern Ireland, Ellis *et al.* (2007) based on data from North America, Ellis *et al.* (2009) based on data from Canada, Patra (2017) based on data from Brazil, India, Australia and Zimbabwe, Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) based on data from North America, Europe, Australia, Japan and New Zealand, Charmley *et al.* (2016) based on data from Australia, and the Mitscherlich equation from Mills *et al.* (2003) based on data from the UK were evaluated given that the covariates used in these published equations were available in the present database. Of these previously published extant equations, the equation that performed the best using our data and the single regression equation that only depended on DMI and performed the best using our data were reported in the present study. Data from studies included in the present database used for the development of these extant equations were excluded from evaluations of those extant equations to ensure independent evaluation.

First, the mean square prediction error (MSPE) was calculated according to Bibby and Toutenburg (1977) as:

$$MSPE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - P_i)^2}{n},$$

where  $O_i$  and  $P_i$  denote the observed and predicted value of the response variable for the  $i^{\text{th}}$  observation, respectively, and  $n$  denotes the number of observations. The square root of the mean square prediction error (RMSPE) was used to assess overall model prediction error. In the present study, RMSPE was expressed as a proportion of observed CH<sub>4</sub> production, yield or intensity means. The MSPE was decomposed into mean bias (MB), slope bias (SB) and random bias to identify systematic biases, of which the MB and SB were calculated as follows:

$$MB = (\bar{O} - \bar{P})^2,$$

$$SB = (s_p - rs_o)^2,$$

where  $\bar{O}$  and  $\bar{P}$  denote the predicted and observed means,  $s_p$  denotes the standard deviation of predicted values,  $s_o$  denotes the standard deviation of observed values, and  $r$  denotes the Pearson correlation coefficient. Second, the ratio of RMSPE and  $s_o$ , namely RMSPE-observations standard deviation ratio (RSR), which accounts for the specific variability of the data used for evaluation (Moriassi *et al.*, 2007), was used to compare the performance of models based on data from different (sub)sets. Smaller values of RSR indicate less variation in the prediction error compared to the standard deviation of the observations, with  $RSR = 1$  indicating the RMSPE variance is equal to observed data variance. If  $RSR > 1$ ,  $\bar{O}$  is a better predictor than  $P_i$ . Third, the concordance correlation coefficient (CCC; Lin, 1989), which quantifies both accuracy and precision based on the bias correction factor ( $C_b$ ) and  $r$  by comparing the best-fit line and observations to the identity line ( $y = x$ ), respectively, was calculated. The CCC is given as:

$$CCC = r \cdot C_b,$$

The closer the CCC of a model to 1, the better the model performance.

Different forage proportion cutoff values with increments of 5% from 15 to 50% were tested to evaluate the effect of the cutoff for splitting the database into higher-forage and lower-forage subsets on equation performance. Cutoff values of 0, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45, and 50% forage DM were used for evaluation. Per cutoff value, an RSR weighted to the number of observations for the DMI\_C equation was calculated for the higher-forage and lower-forage CH<sub>4</sub> production equations, after which the optimal cutoff value could be determined.

### 3. Results

The inclusion criterion for dietary treatment had different effects on the variables means, viz., DMI (8.13 vs. 8.06 kg d<sup>-1</sup>; cleaned vs. uncleaned averages, respectively), and NDF (35.0 vs. 35.0% of DM), starch (34.0 vs. 30.5% of DM), EE (3.02 vs. 3.52% of DM), ash (6.29 vs. 7.26% of DM), and forage (51.0 vs. 58.1% of DM) content of the diet, BW (478 vs. 487 kg), CH<sub>4</sub> production (161 vs. 164 g d<sup>-1</sup> animal<sup>-1</sup>), CH<sub>4</sub> yield [20.0 vs. 20.4 g (kg DMI)<sup>-1</sup>], CH<sub>4</sub> intensity [145 vs. 207 g (kg ADG)<sup>-1</sup>] and Y<sub>m</sub> (6.0 vs. 6.0 % of the gross energy intake). Summary statistics for the (sub)sets of the present cleaned database that included intake, dietary nutrient composition, BW, ADG and CH<sub>4</sub> variables are presented in Tables 1 and S1.

### ***3.1 Methane production equations***

The DMI\_C all-data CH<sub>4</sub> production (g d<sup>-1</sup> animal<sup>-1</sup>) equation indicated a positive relationship of DMI with CH<sub>4</sub> production (Eq. 1; Table 2; regression coefficient  $\pm$  2·SE gives a rough estimate of the 95% confidence interval boundaries that correspond to a *P*-value of 0.05, all *P*-values < 0.05 were not reported). The DMI+NDF\_C, DMI+STA\_C and DMI+EE\_C equations had positive, negative and negative regression coefficients for dietary NDF, starch and EE in relation to CH<sub>4</sub> production, respectively (Eqns. 2-4). The RSR, which is the most appropriate statistic for evaluating equations based on different numbers of observations, for the DMI\_C, DMI+NDF\_C, DMI+STA\_C and DMI+EE\_C equations indicated similar predictive performance, whereas the CCC indicated the DMI+NDF\_C equation performed better than the DMI\_C and DMI+EE\_C equations (0.63 vs. 0.60 and 0.61, respectively). Dietary forage content and DMI were selected for the Diet\_C and Animal\_C equations (Eqns. 5-6), with BW also selected for the Animal\_C equation. Dietary forage and ash and BW were selected for the Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equation (Eq. 7). The Animal\_C was the best performing all-data equation developed in the present analysis, with RSR and CCC of 0.61 and 0.76, respectively. Across the developed all-data



equations, slope bias ranged from 1.01-12.7%, which was consistently associated with under-prediction at the high end and over-prediction at the low end of production (Fig. 1). Overall, models with a higher number of covariates tended to have less slope bias and had less between-study variance ( $\sigma_s^2$  not shown).

The RSR of the all-data DMI\_C CH<sub>4</sub> production equation was 0.71 (Table 3). Splitting the database into higher-forage and lower-forage subsets at cutoffs of 15 to 50% resulted in very similar weighted average RSR values of 0.68 to 0.69. The cutoff of 20% that was applied resulted in an RSR of 0.94 for the lower-forage subset at this cutoff value, whereas the cutoff values from 25 to 50% had all lower RSR values for the lower-forage subset. This might suggest that the lower-forage subset is a better predictor at a higher cutoff. However, the prediction of the data associated with  $\leq 20\%$  forage did not improve at cutoff values  $> 20\%$  (results not shown), indicating that data with  $> 20\%$  forage decreased the RSR of the lower-forage subset, but not the data associated with  $\leq 20\%$  forage. Based on these differences in performance and the fact that diets containing  $\leq 20\%$  forage are commonly fed to cattle in intense feedlot production systems, the data were split at 20% forage throughout the present study, which made all lower-forage data contain  $\leq 18\%$  forage and the higher-forage  $\geq 25\%$  forage.

The higher-forage CH<sub>4</sub> production equations overlapped with the all-data equations, where DMI and dietary NDF, starch and EE in the DMI\_C, DMI+NDF\_C, DMI+STA\_C and DMI+EE\_C equations showed regression coefficients with the same sign (Eqns. 12-15; Table 4). Moreover, similar covariates were selected for the Diet\_C, Animal\_C and Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equations as for the all-data equations, although the Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equation did not contain dietary ash (Eqns. 16-18). The higher-forage equations predicted the higher-forage subset better than the all-data equations, with mean RSR of 0.62 vs. 0.66 and CCC of 0.70 vs. 0.68, respectively,

for the DMI\_C, DMI+NDF\_C, DMI+STA\_C, DMI+EE\_C, Diet\_C, Animal\_C and Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equations. The developed higher-forage equations under-predicted CH<sub>4</sub> production at the high end and over-predicted it at the low end of production, with the multiple regression equations having less slope bias than the DMI\_C equation (Fig. 2). In line with the all-data equations, models with a higher number of covariates had less between-study variance.

In accordance with the all-data and the higher-forage equations, DMI was positively related to CH<sub>4</sub> production in the lower-forage DMI\_C equation (Eq. 20; Table 5). The DMI+NDF\_C, DMI+STA\_C and DMI+EE\_C equations indicated no significant relationships between the corresponding dietary NDF, starch and EE contents with CH<sub>4</sub> production (Eqns. 21-23; *P*-values of 0.14, 0.10 and 0.57, respectively). The lower-forage DMI\_C equation predicted the lower-forage subset better than the all-data equations based on RSR, whereas the highest CCC of 0.35 for the lower-forage subset were obtained from the all-data DMI+STA\_C and Animal\_C equations (Eqns. 3, 6; Table 2). Systematic bias, that is the sum of mean and slope bias, was less than 5.75% for these developed lower-forage equations (Table 5), except for the DMI+STA\_C equation that had 3.70 and 20.18% mean and slope bias, respectively. The minor slope bias of the lower-forage DMI\_C equation ( $\leq 0.03\%$ ) was due to under-prediction of CH<sub>4</sub> production at the high end and over-prediction at the low end (Fig. 3).

In contrast to the higher-forage equations, dietary NDF and starch contents in the European higher-forage DMI+NDF\_C and DMI+STA\_C equations were not related to CH<sub>4</sub> production (Eqns. 29-30, Table 6; *P*-values of 0.20 and 0.69, respectively). Furthermore, DMI, dietary NDF and EE were selected for the Diet\_C equation (Eq. 32) with BW also being selected for the Animal\_C equation (Eq. 33), whereas DMI and BW, and BW were selected for the Global\_C and Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equations, respectively (Eqns. 34-35). The North American higher-forage

equations were largely in line with the higher-forage equations. However, the Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equation also contained dietary ash (Eq. 44; Table 7) as obtained for the all-data equation, and the Global\_C equation also contained dietary crude protein (Eq. 45). The European higher-forage and North American higher-forage equations under-predicted CH<sub>4</sub> at the high end and over-predicted it at the low end of production, except for the European higher-forage DMI+EE\_C equation, which under-predicted CH<sub>4</sub> at the low end and over-predicted at the high end (Figs. 4-5). Dietary NDF and EE contents in the Brazilian higher-forage DMI+NDF\_C and DMI+EE\_C equations were not significantly related to CH<sub>4</sub> production (Eqns. 49-50, Table S2; *P*-values of 0.28 and 0.05, respectively), the Diet\_C equation contained DMI and dietary ash (Eq. 51), whereas the Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equation contained dietary forage (Eq. 52). Slope bias varied from 9.05 to 18.9% for the developed Brazilian higher-forage equations, except for the Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equation for which 32.9% slope bias was obtained. Equations under-predicted CH<sub>4</sub> production at the low end and over-predicted at the high end, whereas the Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equation showed a negative observed *vs.* predicted correlation (Fig. S1). Compared to the higher-forage equations, the European higher-forage, North American higher-forage and Brazilian higher-forage data were more adequately predicted by the European higher-forage (mean RSR of 0.80 *vs.* 0.85, mean CCC of 0.50 *vs.* 0.48; respectively; Tables 4, 6), North American higher-forage (mean RSR of 0.53 *vs.* 0.57, mean CCC of 0.80 *vs.* 0.77; respectively; Tables 4, 7) and Brazilian higher-forage (mean RSR of 1.13 *vs.* 1.35, respectively; Tables 4, S2), although mean CCC indicated Brazilian higher-forage data was more adequately predicted using the higher-forage than the Brazilian higher-forage equations (0.17 *vs.* 0.11, respectively; Tables 4, S2).

The IPCC (2006) Tier 2 higher-forage equation had an RSR of 0.68 and a CCC of 0.75 when evaluated using all data (Eq. 9; Table 2). Predicting the higher-forage subset with this

equation resulted in RSR and CCC of 0.53 and 0.84, respectively (Eq. 9; Table 4). Despite this high accuracy of prediction of the Tier 2 approach, increased variance appeared along the unity line of the predicted *vs.* observed plots (Figs. 1-2). The IPCC Tier 2 (2006) lower-forage equation had an RSR of 1.38, a CCC of 0.17 and 59.6% mean bias for the lower-forage subset (Eq. 25; Table 5). The GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 equations with  $Y_m$  of 6.1% and 6.3% (Eqns. 8, 19; Tables 2, 4) performed slightly better than the IPCC Tier 2 (2006) equation for the all-data and higher-forage (sub)sets, respectively [note that the IPCC equations were validated, the GLOBAL NETWORK equations were cross-validated], whereas the lower-forage GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 equation with  $Y_m$  of 4.5% resulted in RSR of 0.90, a CCC of 0.43 and 0.47% of mean bias (Eq. 24) performed obviously better than the lower-forage IPCC Tier 2 equation. Although the IPCC currently uses a 10% forage cutoff, a  $Y_m$  of 4.5% is still more accurate than a  $Y_m$  of 3.0% for the present data, with RSR being 0.98 and 1.51, and CCC being 0.40 and 0.16 for the GLOBAL NETWORK and IPCC Tier 2 lower-forage equations, respectively (Eqns. 24-25). The European higher-forage and North American higher-forage subsets were associated with RSR of 0.66 and 0.48, and CCC of 0.71 and 0.88 for the IPCC Tier 2 (2006) equation, respectively (Eq. 9; Tables 6-7), whereas RSR of 1.81 and CCC of 0.21 were obtained for the Brazilian higher-forage subset (Eq. 9; Table S2). Compared to the latter equation, the GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 equations with  $Y_m$  of 6.6 and 6.3% performed similarly based on RSR and CCC for the European higher-forage and North American higher-forage subset (Eqns. 36, 46; Tables 6-7), whereas less mean bias was obtained with 1.89 *vs.* 3.54% and 2.51 *vs.* 8.70%, respectively. The Brazilian higher-forage subset was better predicted when using the GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 approach resulted in a  $Y_m$  of 5.5%, an RSR of 1.29, and a CCC of 0.28 (Eq. 53; Table S2).

Equations developed by Ellis *et al.* (2009), Charmley *et al.* (2016) and Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) were among the best performing extant equations and outperformed the Yan *et al.* (2000, 2009), Mills *et al.* (2003), Ellis *et al.* (2007) and Patra (2017) equations for all (sub)sets. The best performing equation of Charmley *et al.* (2016) performed better than the all-data DMI\_C equation (Eqns. 1, 10; Table 2). The all-forage equation of Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) appeared to perform most accurately among all of the equations (Eq. 11). However, only 646 data points were available for independent evaluation. Based on RSR, it did not outperform the Animal\_C equation for these 646 data points. For the higher-forage subset, the best Charmley *et al.* (2016) and the Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) equations performed the best based on CCC (Eqns. 20, 11; Table 4), but not on RSR. The Ellis *et al.* (2009) equation that also depended on the NDF:starch ratio (Eq. 26; Table 5) performed the best for the lower-forage data with RSR of 0.89 and CCC of 0.41. For the European higher-forage subset, the best Charmley *et al.* (2016) and the Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) equations (Eqns. 37, 11; Table 6) did not perform better than the Animal\_C equation when just considering RSR and CCC values, although the Animal\_C equation was evaluated using fewer data points. For the North American higher-forage subset, the best performing Charmley *et al.* (2016) equation (Eq. 47; Table 7) performed similarly to the Global\_C equation based on RSR, whereas the Charmley *et al.* (2016) equation performed even slightly better based on CCC. Despite the accuracy of the various equations of Charmley *et al.* (2016) and in contrast to the Animal\_C equations, the predicted vs. observed plots showed increasing variation along the unity line for all-data in particular (Fig. 1). However, the best-performing equations that were developed, which was the Animal\_C equation for most subsets, did not show increasing variation along the unity line. This indicates that the best performing equations that were developed explain variation that is not captured by the Charmley

*et al.* (2016) equations. These higher precisions obtained from the best performing equations is also indicated by the correlation coefficients of predicted *vs.* observed values on which the CCC is calculated (result not shown).

### **3.2 Methane yield equations**

Positive, negative and negative slope regression coefficients were obtained for the NDF\_C, STA\_C and EE\_C all-data CH<sub>4</sub> yield [g (kg DMI)<sup>-1</sup>] equations (Eqns. 54-56, Table S3), respectively, which aligned with the all-data CH<sub>4</sub> production equations. The Diet\_no\_DMI\_C and Global\_no\_DMI\_C equations selected dietary forage (Eqns. 57-58), whereas dietary EE and ash were also selected for the Diet\_no\_DMI\_C equation, and dietary crude protein for the Global\_no\_DMI\_C equation. The NDF\_C, STA\_C, EE\_C, Diet\_no\_DMI\_C and Global\_no\_DMI\_C equations had RSR values of 0.98, 1.06, 1.01, 0.97 and 0.96, respectively. The NDF\_C, STA\_C and EE\_C higher-forage CH<sub>4</sub> yield equations indicated positive, negative and negative relationships to CH<sub>4</sub> yield, respectively (Eqns. 59-61, Table S4), whereas only dietary forage content was selected for the Diet\_no\_DMI\_C equation (Eq. 62). The higher-forage CH<sub>4</sub> yield was associated with RSR of 1.03 to 1.21 (Table S3) when predicted by the all-data equations, whereas the higher-forage equations predicted CH<sub>4</sub> yield of this subset with RSR values from 0.98 to 1.04 (Table S4). The higher-forage equations reproduced the observed variation in CH<sub>4</sub> yield less adequately than the all-data equations, with even a negative observed *vs.* predicted relationship for the higher-forage STA\_C and EE\_C equations (Figs. S2-S3).

### **3.3 Methane intensity equations**

In contrast to the CH<sub>4</sub> production equations, the DMI regression coefficients in the all-data DMI\_C and DMI+EE\_C CH<sub>4</sub> intensity equations [g (kg ADG)<sup>-1</sup>] contained zero in their confidence intervals (*P*-values of 0.14 and 0.22, respectively), whereas the DMI+NDF\_C and

DMI+STA\_C equations had a positive regression coefficient for DMI (Eqns. 63-66; Table S5). In line with the CH<sub>4</sub> production equations, dietary NDF, starch and EE contents in the DMI+NDF\_C, DMI+STA\_C and DMI+EE\_C equations had positive, negative and negative relationships with CH<sub>4</sub> intensity, respectively. Dietary forage content was selected for the Diet\_C, Animal\_no\_DMI\_C and Global\_C equations (Eqns. 67-69), with DMI also being selected for the Diet\_C equation and BW also being selected for the Global\_C equation. The Diet\_C, Animal\_no\_DMI\_C and Global\_C equations had RSR values of 0.99, 1.00 and 0.96, respectively, and appeared to predict the variation in CH<sub>4</sub> intensity most adequately (Fig. S4), whereas the other all-data CH<sub>4</sub> intensity equations had RSR greater than 1 and appeared to predict the variation in CH<sub>4</sub> intensity less adequately.

The higher-forage DMI\_C, DMI+STA\_C and DMI+EE\_C equations did not indicate that DMI was related to CH<sub>4</sub> intensity (Eqns. 70, 72-73, Table S6; *P*-values of 0.06, 0.52 and 0.93, respectively). Dietary NDF was positively related to CH<sub>4</sub> intensity (Eq. 71), whereas dietary starch and EE contents were not related to CH<sub>4</sub> intensity (Eqns. 72-73; *P* = 0.32). Dietary ash content was selected for the Diet\_C equation (Eq. 74), whereas BW were selected for the Animal\_C and Global\_C equations (Eqns. 75-76), with dietary NDF also being selected for the Global\_C equation. All higher-forage CH<sub>4</sub> intensity equations had  $RSR \geq 1.03$ . Furthermore, as also obtained for the higher-forage CH<sub>4</sub> yield equations, the higher-forage CH<sub>4</sub> intensity equations did not reproduce the observed variation in CH<sub>4</sub> intensity of the higher-forage subset more adequately than the all-data CH<sub>4</sub> intensity equations (Figs. S4-S5), which was also indicated by the RSR and CCC values.

#### 4. Discussion

Global applicability is an important attribute of prediction equations of beef cattle enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission. Various beef cattle systems that are applied world-wide may fit in our analysis. For more details about these beef cattle fattening systems, we refer to *e.g.*, De Vries *et al.* (2015), Gerssen-Gondelach *et al.* (2017) and Drouillard (2018). Our database, in which data (1021 individual records) from a variety of geographical regions across the world is represented, therefore, contributes to the overall robustness and global applicability of our all-data and higher-forage equations in particular. Hence, CH<sub>4</sub> production of beef cattle will be accurately predicted for data samples that represent a wider set of conditions throughout the world, which is a unique feature of the present equations. Several CH<sub>4</sub> prediction equations for beef cattle have been published previously, but they were developed from relatively small databases and only for one specific geographic region, such as Yan *et al.* (2009) using 108 individual animal records from 5 studies from Northern Ireland, Ellis *et al.* (2007) using 83 treatment means from 14 studies from North America, Ellis *et al.* (2009) using 872 individual animal records from 12 studies from Alberta (Canada), and Moraes *et al.* (2014) using individual records from 414 heifers and 458 steers housed at one research station in the United States.

In the present study, we collated a wide-ranging database that included a large number of studies from Europe, North America, Brazil, Australia and South Korea, which represented diverse global beef production systems. Studies from tropical areas were, however, not predominant in the present analysis, for which we refer to Charmley *et al.* (2016) who included studies from tropical Australia, and Patra (2017) who included studies from India, Zimbabwe, Australia and Brazil. Furthermore, Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) had a database comprising 148 treatment means from 38 studies with diets containing > 40% forage, and a database comprising 43 treatment means from 17 studies with diets containing < 20% forage. Therefore, their analysis for lower-forage



diets, in particular, included more data from more studies than ours, but their cutoff values for lower and higher forage were based on differences in microbiome composition rather than the prediction error used in the present analysis. Furthermore, their analysis did not explore intercontinental variation in beef cattle CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and did not have the benefit of using individual animal records. Other unique strengths of the present study are the development of CH<sub>4</sub> yield and intensity equations, whereas beef cattle studies are commonly limited to only total CH<sub>4</sub> production, and the inclusion of dietary forage content as a covariate of the three CH<sub>4</sub> emission metrics.

Our database includes data obtained with different CH<sub>4</sub> (*viz.*, respiration chambers, GreenFeed system, SF<sub>6</sub>) and DMI (*viz.*, weighing and estimating using marker techniques) measurement methods. The different CH<sub>4</sub> measurement techniques have their strengths and weaknesses (Hammond *et al.*, 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2018), whereas directly weighing the amount of feed offered and refusals and their dry matter content is regarded as more accurate than the ytterbium and *n*-alkane markers used for some studies in the present database, which may over- or underestimate DMI (Pérez-Ramírez *et al.*, 2012). However, the development of a DMI\_C CH<sub>4</sub> production equation specific for respiration chamber, GreenFeed system and SF<sub>6</sub> subsets did not consistently improve the RSR and CCC of the corresponding subsets compared with the all-data DMI\_C equation (results not shown). Furthermore, including CH<sub>4</sub> measurement method as a covariate in the statistical model of an all-data DMI\_C equation did not improve the model fit. Similar results were obtained for measurement method of DMI. Therefore, CH<sub>4</sub> and DMI measurement methods did not have a major effect on the performance of the equations developed in the present analysis. However, the relatively high and low accuracies with which the region-specific subsets could be predicted may be related to the CH<sub>4</sub> measurement methods, because the

percentage of use of respiration chambers in the European higher-forage, North American higher-forage and Brazilian higher-forage subsets differed substantially (48, 95 and 0%, respectively). Finally, statistically accounting for cattle breed or cattle type (*e.g.*, steers, heifers, cows) was considered, but did not or not consistently improve the prediction of CH<sub>4</sub> production throughout the subsets.

Non-linear CH<sub>4</sub> prediction equations such as the Mitscherlich equation were previously found to outperform linear equations in some studies (*e.g.*, Mills *et al.*, 2003; Patra, 2017). However, for the present database, fitting non-linear equations, *viz.*, Monomolecular, Exponential, Mitscherlich and Power forms, did not result in improved prediction of CH<sub>4</sub> production compared to the linear DMI\_C equations (result not shown). The latter result is in line with the non-linear Mills *et al.* (2003) and Patra (2017) equations that did not outperform the linear Charmley *et al.* (2016) equations. This suggests that a multiple linear regression approach, as used for the development of our Animal\_C and Global\_C equations rather than non-linear approaches, improves the precision and accuracy of prediction of CH<sub>4</sub> production. The utility of ADG and digestibility of EE, NDF, nitrogen, gross energy, DM and organic matter for predicting CH<sub>4</sub> was also evaluated, but these covariates did not result in better prediction of CH<sub>4</sub> production than achieved by the various equations that are presented.

The linear regression equations of Charmley *et al.* (2016) that depended on DMI and outperformed our DMI\_C equations were fitted using models that included more terms than just DMI, which resulted in nearly unbiased predictions of CH<sub>4</sub>. Furthermore, the data Charmley *et al.* (2016) used were only from certain regions in Australia and may have been relatively homogeneous. The equations developed using these data may then result in accurate prediction of CH<sub>4</sub> production based on only DMI. Therefore, the prediction bias for our various Animal\_C and

Global\_C equations and some potential overestimation of between-study variance that remained may vanish by the inclusion of even more covariates in the statistical model. The negligible bias obtained for the European higher-forage Animal\_C equation, for which dietary crude protein and EE contents were available for all individual animal records used for fitting this model, and suggests that multiple regression equations are associated with less bias. Despite prediction biases of mixed-effects models being associated with the inclusion of the random study effect (see also White *et al.*, 2017), which applies to models with fewer covariates in particular, omission of the random study effect will affect the inference made on the covariates and may result in type II errors (St-Pierre, 2001). Therefore, for achieving unbiased predictions, mixed-effects models are ideally applied to datasets without missing values throughout the different covariates. Such datasets will result in greater variation of the dependent variable explained by multiple fixed-effects terms and less overestimation of the random study effect.

#### **4.1 Key predictor variables**

Dry matter intake was the most important predictor of enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production as it was significantly and positively related to CH<sub>4</sub> production for all-data and the higher-forage, lower-forage, European higher-forage and North American higher-forage subsets. A positive relationship between DMI and CH<sub>4</sub> production is in agreement with previous dairy and beef cattle studies (*e.g.*, Ellis *et al.*, 2007; Hristov *et al.*, 2013a; Richmond *et al.*, 2015; Bell *et al.*, 2016; Charmley *et al.*, 2016; Niu *et al.*, 2018) and this is because more CH<sub>4</sub> is produced when more substrate is available for microbial fermentation and in turn methanogenesis. In addition, all Diet\_C and Animal\_C models based on these five (sub)sets selected DMI for the prediction of CH<sub>4</sub> production, and the Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equations did not perform as well as the Animal\_C equations, indicating the importance of DMI relative to other covariates.

The positive relationship between the all-data CH<sub>4</sub> production and dietary NDF content also aligns with previous results (*e.g.*, Ellis *et al.*, 2007; Yan *et al.*, 2009; Niu *et al.*, 2018). The coefficients of variation were 43.8, 45.4 and 30.3% for CH<sub>4</sub> production, and 32.0, 30.6 and 8.6% for dietary NDF content for the all-data and the higher-forage and lower-forage subsets, respectively. This decrease in variation is in line with the disappearance of this positive relationship for the all-data and higher-forage *vs.* the lower-forage equations. Therefore, developing subsets with limited variation in forage percentage seems to have masked the positive relationship between CH<sub>4</sub> production and dietary NDF content. Furthermore, dietary nutrient contents change at the expense of other nutrients. Dietary NDF content may increase at the expense of more rapidly fermentable carbohydrates, which is positively associated with CH<sub>4</sub> production (Hatew *et al.*, 2015). The latter hypothesis aligns with a model with DMI and dietary NDF and starch fitted to all data having regression coefficients that were positive, positive and not different from zero for DMI and dietary NDF and starch, respectively (result not shown). However, the lignin fraction of NDF being undegradable indicates that increased dietary NDF may not result in more CH<sub>4</sub> production in case of high lignin contents. Warner *et al.* (2016) observed lower CH<sub>4</sub> production but higher CH<sub>4</sub> yield per unit of digestible organic matter for dairy cattle fed grass silage of high lignin and NDF content, compared with grass silage of low lignin and NDF content. The observation of Na *et al.* (2017) who found different CH<sub>4</sub> yields per unit of DMI for deer and goats, but not per unit of digestible DMI may also support this hypothesis.

Dietary starch content is negatively related to CH<sub>4</sub> production as it typically increases propionate production in the rumen, yielding less H<sub>2</sub> for the reduction of CO<sub>2</sub> to CH<sub>4</sub> (Martin *et al.*, 2010; Grainger and Beauchemin, 2011). The effect of dietary starch on CH<sub>4</sub> production appeared to be less pronounced for higher-forage diets in dairy cows (Van Gastelen *et al.*, 2015),

which may explain why no relationship between dietary starch content and CH<sub>4</sub> production was found for the European higher-forage subset, which had the highest forage content of all subsets. Furthermore, it was suggested that a critical dietary content of starch is required to decrease CH<sub>4</sub> production (Martin *et al.*, 2010; Van Gastelen *et al.*, 2015), possibly more than approximately 20% of DM, and that slight differences in intakes of starch, and other major carbohydrates (*e.g.*, hemicellulose, cellulose and lignin) cannot explain the difference in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions of cattle (Moe and Tyrrell, 1979; Moate *et al.*, 2018). This may also explain why no relationship between dietary starch content and CH<sub>4</sub> production was obtained based on the European higher-forage subset. The lack of a relationship between CH<sub>4</sub> production and dietary starch content for the lower-forage subset may be related to the small variation in starch content (coefficient of variation is 13.1%).

The positive relationship that was obtained between CH<sub>4</sub> production and dietary forage aligns with previously published studies (*e.g.*, Yan *et al.*, 2000; Hristov *et al.*, 2013) stating that either increased forage or decreased concentrate proportion in the diet yielded more CH<sub>4</sub>. Johnson and Johnson (1995) referred to cattle fed more than 90% concentrate producing only half of the CH<sub>4</sub> produced by cattle fed more common concentrate proportions, and Aguerre *et al.*, 2011 observed a linear increase in CH<sub>4</sub> yield upon increasing dietary forage content from 47 to 68%. Nevertheless, a modeling study by Sauvant and Giger-Reverdin (2009) predicted that a decrease in CH<sub>4</sub> yield is only observed for dietary forage contents less than 65%. Despite the latter prediction, the frequent appearance of dietary forage in the equations developed in the present study indicates dietary forage content is a decent predictor of CH<sub>4</sub> emission, possibly more robust than dietary NDF content that was less frequently selected for the developed equations.

Dietary lipid content is commonly negatively related to CH<sub>4</sub> production (Grainger and Beauchemin, 2011). Lipids may inhibit cellulolytic bacteria, protozoal and archaeal activity,

decrease NDF digestibility, and supply non-fermentable energy to the rumen, outcomes that can decrease CH<sub>4</sub> production (Maia *et al.*, 2007; Beauchemin *et al.*, 2008; Guyader *et al.*, 2014). Long-chain saturated fatty acids may have a minimal inhibitive effect on archaeal activity and CH<sub>4</sub> production, whereas fatty acids such as C12:0 and C18:3 were found to be relatively potent reducers (Machmüller and Kreuzer, 1999; Patra, 2013). Therefore, the actual decrease in CH<sub>4</sub> production obtained from lipids may depend on their fatty acid composition, although this is not confirmed by all *in vivo* studies (*e.g.*, Grainger and Beauchemin, 2011). More importantly, the removal of data associated with dietary lipid and oil supplements excluded data with higher dietary EE contents, which more potently decrease CH<sub>4</sub> production (Patra, 2013), may explain why DMI+EE\_C equations did not perform better than the DMI\_C equations, despite the significant relationships that were obtained for CH<sub>4</sub> production and yield with dietary EE content.

Dietary crude protein content being positively associated with the all-data CH<sub>4</sub> yield in the present analysis aligns with the observation that dietary nitrogen content is positively related to fiber digestibility (Dijkstra *et al.*, 1996). However, decreased CH<sub>4</sub> production may only be observed from cattle fed a diet that is deficient in rumen degradable protein (Sutter *et al.*, 2017). In the present study, we did not observe any relationship between crude protein content and NDF digestibility,  $r = 0.04$ . However, we did observe a correlation between crude protein content and organic matter and dry matter digestibility,  $r = 0.42$  and  $r = 0.37$ , respectively. This is possibly due to higher starch degradability, which could not be verified because of the lack of starch degradability data. Van Lingen *et al.* (2018) applying a multivariate regression approach found that the methodological issues such as the structure of random-effects (co)variance matrices and the combination of fixed-effects variables affect the statistical inference regarding the relationship between dietary crude protein and CH<sub>4</sub> production or yield. Therefore, also based on dietary crude

protein selected for only one equation, the latter relationship may not be commonly strong as well as it may not generally exist. Dietary crude protein may actually be associated with lesser CH<sub>4</sub> production when sufficient rumen degradable protein is fed so as not to limit fermentation in the rumen due to N shortage (Dijkstra *et al.*, 2011), and may be considered a less robust predictor of CH<sub>4</sub> production than dietary NDF and starch.

A positive relationship between BW and CH<sub>4</sub> production observed in various equations in the present analysis aligns with previous cattle research (Yan *et al.*, 2009; Moraes *et al.*, 2014; Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.*, 2017a). Demment and Van Soest (1985) and Smith and Baldwin (1974) observed rumen volume and weight proportional to BW of animals. Consequently, smaller animals ingest less feed and emit less CH<sub>4</sub> (Hristov *et al.*, 2013b). In addition, empirical modeling (Sauvant and Nozière, 2016) and mechanistic model simulations (Huhtanen *et al.*, 2015, 2016) indicated the DMI/BW ratio to be an important factor for CH<sub>4</sub> yield. At similar DMI, smaller cattle tend to produce less CH<sub>4</sub> as the passage rate from the rumen to the intestine may be higher due to a greater DMI/BW ratio. This has been confirmed in sheep for which animals yielding less CH<sub>4</sub> had smaller rumen size (Goopy *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, BW influences DMI, and DMI and rumen volume determine the passage rate of ruminal digesta, which affects feed digestibility, rumen fermentation conditions, and ultimately CH<sub>4</sub> production and yield.

#### **4.2 Best performing equations**

Various equations and model categories for predicting beef cattle CH<sub>4</sub> emission have been applied on various subsets in the present study. The  $Y_m$  models have only one parameter and are the simplest models, the DMI\_C models are still fairly simple, whereas the Animal\_C models are potentially the most complex. The Animal\_C model commonly performed best among all models and outperformed the GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 equations, except for the European higher-

forage subset. The DMI appeared to be the major predictor of enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production in beef cattle, but may not always be available for individual animals on commercial farms, which points to the value of the Animal\_no\_DMI\_C models. Using dietary forage content and BW as a covariate commonly improved the prediction of CH<sub>4</sub> compared with a DMI\_C equation. Therefore, the on-farm availability of all previously mentioned variables is recommended. This availability also enables the evaluation of the effect of dietary nutrient composition on CH<sub>4</sub> production. Moreover, the DMI+STA\_C equation (Eq. 3) appeared to perform well, and might also be used for the prediction of beef cattle CH<sub>4</sub> production, although this equation was based on fewer observations. Nevertheless, dietary starch content was never selected for the Diet\_C, Animal\_C, Animal\_no\_DMI\_C and Global\_C equations, whereas NDF content was, indicating that DMI+STA\_C equations may be slightly less robust than Diet\_C and Animal\_C equations.

If dietary forage content is known to be > 25%, we recommend the use of the higher-forage equations, because the RSR and CCC of these equations are lower and higher, respectively, compared to the higher-forage subset evaluation of the all-data equations. Based on their predictive performance, the higher-forage Animal\_C and the Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) equations (Eqns. 17, 11; Table 4) are specifically recommended. Despite its lower precision, the Charmley *et al.* (2016) equation (Eq. 20) will still give an accurate estimate of CH<sub>4</sub> production if only DMI is available. If dietary forage percentage is ≤ 18%, we recommend the Ellis *et al.* (2009) equations (Eqns. 26-27; Table 5). In addition, we recommend the lower-forage DMI\_C or all-data DMI+NDF\_C, DMI+STA\_C and Animal\_C equations that performed relatively well (Eqns. 20, 2-3, 6; Tables 2, 5). If dietary forage content is between 18 and 25%, we suggest an all-data equation that includes dietary forage, or dietary NDF or starch, because of the forage content that is commonly related to the latter two carbohydrate fractions. The European higher-forage and



North American higher-forage equations performed somewhat better on RSR and CCC than the higher-forage equations for the European higher-forage and North American higher-forage subsets, and less systematic bias was obtained for the region-specific equations. Therefore, we most strongly recommend the Diet\_C, Animal\_C and Charmley *et al.* (2016) equations (Eq. 32-33, 37; Table 6). For North American higher-forage data, the Global\_C and Charmley *et al.* (2016) equations are recommended in particular (Eqns. 45, 47; Table 7).

Models that assumed a fixed  $Y_m$ , such as the IPCC and GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 equations, performed nearly as good as the developed more complex best performing equations in most cases. The Tier 2 equations may, therefore, have a high potential for predicting beef cattle CH<sub>4</sub> production as well, in particular for higher-forage diets, although the higher variance along the unity lines of the predicted vs. observed plots indicates a lack of precision. Moreover, the substantial mean bias that was obtained for the lower-forage subset in particular emphasizes the importance of an accurate estimate of  $Y_m$ . In cases where dietary forage contents are not close to the means of the present data (sub)sets, we do not recommend the use of the  $Y_m$  equations considered in the present study, but an equation that contains dietary forage, NDF or starch. A  $Y_m$  of 4.5% that was obtained for lower-forage diets may be fairly accurate given a  $Y_m$  of 5.2% that was reported for 42 treatments means with  $\leq 17\%$  forage (Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.*, 2017b), and a  $Y_m$  of 3.8% for 34 treatments means with  $\leq 18\%$  forage (Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.*, 2017a). Both of these studies reported 9.5% forage on average for studies collected from multiple continents. These  $Y_m$  values are all higher than the 3.0%, which the IPCC uses for  $\leq 10\%$  forage diets. The  $\leq 10\%$  forage records in the present analysis, which also had a  $Y_m$  of 4.5% suggests that the  $Y_m$  value for lower-forage diets used by the IPCC needs to be reconsidered. However, practices such as feeding steam-flaked corn (Hales *et al.*, 2012) and dietary supplementation with monensin

(Appuhamy *et al.*, 2013) may require alternative prediction as these diets may have a  $Y_m$  value of 3.0%. This also applies to fat supplemented diets (Grainger and Beauchemin, 2011; Patra, 2013).

For CH<sub>4</sub> yield predictions, the all-data NDF\_C, Diet\_no\_DMI\_C and Global\_no\_DMI\_C CH<sub>4</sub> yield equations (Eqns. 54, 57-58) had RSR values < 1 and are suitable for use if dietary forage content is unknown. The Global\_no\_DMI\_C equations may also be used if dietary forage content is known to be  $\leq 18\%$ . The higher-forage Diet\_no\_DMI\_C CH<sub>4</sub> yield equation is the only equation to consider for forage contents > 25% (Eq. 62; Table S4), based on RSR values > 1 for the other higher-forage CH<sub>4</sub> yield equations. For forage contents between 18 and 25% we recommend an all-data equation with RSR < 1 and the highest CCC value when evaluated with all data, which is the Global\_no\_DMI\_C yield equation (Eq. 58). Given that all CH<sub>4</sub> intensity equations were associated with an RSR value > 1 for the higher- and lower-forage subsets, we recommend the observed average values of 108 and 161 [g (kg ADG)<sup>-1</sup>] for dietary forage contents of  $\leq 18\%$  and  $\geq 25\%$ , respectively. For dietary contents between 18 and 25% or if forage content is unknown we recommend the all-data Global\_C equation (Eq. 69; Table S5).

## 5. Conclusion

Our analysis is based on the large GLOBAL NETWORK dataset comprising data from several continents and a wide variety of forage contents. As observed previously, DMI is the key factor for predicting beef cattle enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production. Non-linear models with DMI as the only independent variable did not outperform their counterpart linear models. However, linear models depending on DMI and dietary forage content or these two covariates plus BW commonly had an improved predictive ability. Separate equations for lower-forage ( $\leq 18\%$ ) and higher-forage ( $\geq 25\%$ ) data also improved predictive ability. Model evaluation specific to European higher-forage,

740 North American higher-forage and Brazilian higher-forage diets compared with that of  
741 intercontinental higher-forage diet models suggests that overall enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production is more  
742 accurately predicted by region-specific models, although in many cases the best intercontinental  
743 and region-specific models may perform similarly. The equations developed in the present study  
744 commonly had higher precision and less prediction error with similar accuracy compared to the  
745 extant equations that were evaluated. Evaluation of CH<sub>4</sub> emission conversion factors indicated that  
746 region-specific and in particular dietary forage content-based  $Y_m$  values are required for adequately  
747 predicting beef cattle CH<sub>4</sub> production in national or global inventories.

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1006 CRC Press, Boca Raton, US.



1007 Table 1. Variable summary statistics for all data, higher-forage (data associated with a forage content  $\geq 25\%$ ), lower-forage (data associated with a forage content  
1008  $\leq 18\%$ ), European higher-forage (EUR-HF) and North American higher-forage (NrAm-HF) entries of the GLOBAL NETWORK beef cattle database.

Item*	All data ( <i>n</i> = 1021)				Higher-forage ( <i>n</i> = 882)				Lower-forage ( <i>n</i> = 139)				EUR-HF ( <i>n</i> = 307)				NrAm-HF ( <i>n</i> = 394)			
	Mean	Min	Max	SD	Mean	Min	Max	SD	Mean	Min	Max	SD	Mean	Min	Max	SD	Mean	Min	Max	SD
DMI (kg d <sup>-1</sup> )	8.13	2.26	17.5	2.82	7.81	2.26	17.5	2.86	10.1	4.77	15.6	1.89	9.46	3.17	15.7	2.12	6.16	2.26	14.1	2.51
GEI (MJ d <sup>-1</sup> )	150	42.6	317	53.7	144	42.6	317	53.1	191	88.2	300	37.1	177	57.8	299	42.0	114	42.6	254	45.4
Diet composition (% of DM)																				
CP	14.6	6.19	22.5	2.56	14.6	6.19	21.3	2.60	14.6	11.4	22.5	2.35	14.3	7.80	19.2	1.84	15.6	10.0	21.3	2.52
EE	3.02	0.372	7.02	1.20	2.87	0.372	7.02	1.05	3.90	0.377	5.63	1.57	3.65	0.372	5.80	1.40	2.58	0.669	5.50	0.825
Ash	6.29	3.22	13.7	2.11	6.52	3.22	13.7	2.13	4.85	3.50	8.00	1.24	6.06	3.40	11.4	1.80	6.51	3.22	13.7	2.29
NDF	35.0	17.2	73.9	11.2	36.6	17.2	73.9	11.2	24.7	19.8	33.3	3.12	37.5	26.1	68.4	7.25	32.9	17.5	67.8	9.76
ADF	19.3	6.92	50.8	8.13	20.6	7.50	50.8	8.06	11.6	6.92	14.5	1.99	21.7	14.0	40.3	5.15	17.5	7.50	36.5	7.28
STA	34.0	2.50	64.1	13.6	32.2	2.50	64.1	14.3	42.0	32.0	56.9	4.52	25.3	2.50	40.3	10.3	41.2	16.8	64.1	12.6
For	51.0	8.0	100	27.7	57.7	25.0	100	24.0	9.8	8.0	18.1	3.18	64.6	31.0	100	16.9	47.9	25.0	100	23.6
ADG (kg d <sup>-1</sup> )	1.25	0.060	3.38	0.431	1.19	0.060	3.38	0.438	1.46	0.552	2.22	0.330	1.22	0.088	1.99	0.348	NA	NA	NA	NA
BW (kg)	478	133	791	148	454	133	791	144	625	376	734	76.5	571	133	791	128	391	196	699	116
Methane emissions																				
CH <sub>4</sub> (g d <sup>-1</sup> )	161	37.0	372	70.5	162	37.0	372	73.5	153	45.1	310	46.4	215	40.9	372	71.8	125	37.0	313	57.5
CH <sub>4</sub> /DMI (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )	20.0	6.29	35.1	5.05	20.7	6.29	35.1	4.75	15.2	7.50	30.9	4.29	22.5	6.64	35.1	5.19	20.3	6.29	33.3	4.21
CH <sub>4</sub> /ADG (g kg <sup>-1</sup> )																				
<sup>1</sup> ) ♪	4.98	3.31	6.68	0.522	5.08	3.31	6.68	0.528	4.68	3.84	5.71	0.362	5.20	3.31	6.68	0.517	NA	NA	NA	NA
Y <sub>m</sub> (% of GEI)§	6.0	1.9	10.4	1.5	6.3	1.9	10.4	1.4	4.5	2.3	8.7	1.2	6.7	2.0	10.3	1.5	6.2	1.9	10.4	1.3

1009 \*DM = dry matter, DMI = dry matter intake, GEI = gross energy intake, CP = dietary crude protein, EE = dietary ether extract, NDF = dietary neutral detergent fiber,

1010 ADF = dietary acid detergent fiber, STA = dietary starch, For = dietary forage, ADG = average daily body weight gain, BW = body weight.

1011 ‡Min = minimum, Max = maximum, SD = standard deviation.

1012 ♪ ln transformed values.

1013 §Methane conversion factor (%): energy of CH<sub>4</sub> as a proportion of GEI; the specific energy of CH<sub>4</sub> is 55.65 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup>.

1014 Table 2. All-data CH<sub>4</sub> emission (g d<sup>-1</sup> animal<sup>-1</sup>) prediction equations for various categories and model performance across the data (sub)sets  
1015 based on root mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of mean), RMSPE-observations-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR), mean and slope bias (MB  
1016 and SB; % of mean square prediction error), and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC).

Model development				Model performance						
Eq.	Category§	Prediction equation*	<i>n</i> †	(Sub)set‡	<i>p</i> ‡	RMSPE, %	RSR	MB, %	SB, %	CCC
[1]	DMI_C	54.2 (7.6) + 12.6 (0.6) × DMI	1021	All-data	991	31.2	0.71	0.69	12.55	0.60
				Higher-forage	852	30.8	0.67	3.86	27.26	0.64
				Lower-forage	139	33.9	1.12	34.96	0.59	0.27
[2]	DMI+NDF_C	−16.4 (9.0) + 12.1 (0.6) × DMI + 2.10 (0.16) × NDF	1021	All-data	991	31.4	0.71	0.92	1.99	0.63
				Higher-forage	852	31.8	0.69	1.82	2.81	0.65
				Lower-forage	139	28.7	0.94	3.45	2.10	0.32
[3]	DMI+STA_C	126 (11) + 11.5 (0.9) × DMI − 1.75 (0.16) × STA	704	All-data	704	28.9	0.71	6.09	1.01	0.65
				Higher-forage	575	28.7	0.70	13.87	1.80	0.68
				Lower-forage	129	30.1	0.96	15.77	0.64	0.35
[4]	DMI+EE_C	83.0 (9.8) + 11.9 (0.6) × DMI − 7.31 (1.69) × EE	754	All-data	754	29.4	0.71	1.35	8.83	0.61
				Higher-forage	644	29.2	0.67	0.08	19.59	0.64
				Lower-forage	110	30.3	1.21	37.59	4.20	0.25
[5]	Diet_C	−0.767 (7.493) + 12.0 (0.5) × DMI + 1.12 (0.06) × For	1021	All-data	991	29.5	0.67	2.39	1.24	0.70
				Higher-forage	852	29.5	0.64	1.30	2.12	0.72
				Lower-forage	139	29.8	0.98	17.57	0.30	0.32
[6]	Animal_C, Global_C		1003	All-data	991	26.9	0.61	2.20	1.37	0.76
				All-data¶,‡	646	22.5	0.52	3.05	0.41	0.84

		$-28.3 (8.3) + 10.3 (0.6) \times \text{DMI} +$		Higher-forage	852	26.8	0.58	2.00	1.83	0.78
		$1.12 (0.06) \times \text{For} + 0.0885$		Lower-forage	139	27.8	0.91	3.72	0.65	0.35
		$(0.0150) \times \text{BW}$								
[7]	Animal_no_DMI_C	$6.03 (10.40) + 1.25 (0.07) \times \text{For} -$	992	All-data	991	30.9	0.70	0.55	1.98	0.65
		$2.29 (0.77) \times \text{Ash} + 0.212 (0.015)$		Higher-forage	852	30.9	0.67	0.23	3.04	0.68
		$\times \text{BW}$		Lower-forage	139	31.3	1.03	5.86	3.26	0.11
[8]	GLOBAL	$[0.061 (0.001) \times \text{GEI}] / 0.05565$	1021	All-data	991	28.5	0.64	0.59	0.27	0.75
	NETWORK Tier 2			All-data <sup>†,‡</sup>	991	28.3	0.64	0.23	0.87	0.76
[9]	IPCC Tier 2 (2006) ¶	$(0.065 \times \text{GEI}) / 0.05565$	-	All-data <sup>†</sup>	991	29.9	0.68	7.97	3.04	0.75
[10]	Charmley <i>et al.</i> (2016)	$-6.10 + 20.6 \times \text{DMI}$		All-data <sup>†,  </sup>	939	28.9	0.66	0.00	1.15	0.74
[11]	Escobar-Bahamondes <i>et al.</i> (2017a)	$-35.0 + 0.08 \times \text{BW} + 1.2 \times \text{For} -$ $69.8 \times \text{EEI}^3 + 3.14 \times \text{GEI}$		All-data <sup>†,‡</sup>	646	23.2	0.54	11.66	2.12	0.85

§ Category acronyms (*e.g.*, DMI\_C) are explained in the ‘Model development’ subsection of the ‘Methods and Materials’ section.

\* Equations are presented with regression coefficient standard errors in parenthesis; DMI = dry matter intake (kg d<sup>-1</sup>), NDF = dietary neutral detergent fiber (% of DM), STA = dietary starch (% of DM), EE = dietary ether extract (% of DM), Ash = dietary ash (% of DM), For = dietary forage (% of DM), BW = body weight (kg), GEI = gross energy intake (MJ d<sup>-1</sup>), EEI = ether extract intake (kg d<sup>-1</sup>).

†*n* = number of observations used to fit model equations

‡All-data = all data collected for analysis, Higher-forage = data associated with a forage content ≥ 25%, Lower-forage = data associated with a forage content ≤ 18%.

‡*p* = numbers of observations used for model evaluation.

¶IPCC = Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

‡Performance was evaluated, not cross-validated.

- 1027    ♪No independent evaluation.
- 1028    ¶The 991 data points minus data from Tomkins *et al.* (2011) and Kennedy and Charmley (2012) to ensure independent evaluation.
- 1029    #The 991 data points minus data from Pinares-Patiño *et al.* (2003), Chaves *et al.* (2006), McGeough *et al.* (2010ab), Doreau *et al.* (2011), Staerfl
- 1030    *et al.* (2012), Hünérberg *et al.* (2013ab) and Troy *et al.* (2015) to ensure independent evaluation.

1031 Table 3. Root mean square prediction error-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR) of the DMI\_C CH<sub>4</sub> production (g d<sup>-1</sup>) equations based on lower-forage  
1032 ( $\leq$  forage content cutoff) and higher-forage ( $>$  forage content cutoff) subsets, their number of observations ( $n$ ), and the average RSR weighted to  
1033 the number of higher- and lower-forage observations (All) for various diet forage content cutoff values to split the entire dataset into lower-forage  
1034 and higher-forage subsets.

(Sub)set	Forage content cutoff (% of DM)								
	0	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50
Higher-forage	NA	0.65	0.64	0.65	0.68	0.68	0.69	0.70	0.62
$n$	NA	902	882	783	672	664	602	579	474
Lower-forage	NA	0.95	0.94	0.78	0.69	0.70	0.68	0.68	0.73
$n$	NA	119	139	238	349	357	419	442	547
All	0.71	0.68	0.68	0.68	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.68

1035

1036 Table 4. Higher-forage CH<sub>4</sub> emission (g d<sup>-1</sup> animal<sup>-1</sup>) prediction equations for various categories and model performance across the data subsets  
1037 based on root mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of mean), RMSPE-observations-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR), mean and slope bias (MB  
1038 and SB; % of mean square prediction error), and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC).

Model development					Model performance					
Eq.	Category§	Prediction equation*	<i>n</i> †	(Sub)set‡	<i>p</i> ‡	RMSPE, %	RSR	MB, %	SB, %	CCC
[12]	DMI_C	52.8 (7.5) + 13.8 (0.6) × DMI	882	Higher-forage	852	29.3	0.64	0.28	22.78	0.68
				EUR-HF	307	29.3	0.88	26.42	15.91	0.43
				NrAm-HF	394	27.3	0.59	16.37	27.26	0.75
				BRZ-HF	75	26.1	1.40	31.70	22.96	0.23
[13]	DMI+NDF_C	23.8 (9.1) + 13.5 (0.6) × DMI + 0.844 (0.165) × NDF	882	Higher-forage	852	29.1	0.64	0.20	17.83	0.69
				EUR-HF	307	29.0	0.87	27.08	14.11	0.45
				NrAm-HF	394	25.2	0.55	13.46	21.70	0.80
				BRZ-HF	75	24.9	1.34	24.24	26.05	0.25
[14]	DMI+STA_C	83.4 (11.4) + 13.6 (0.8) × DMI – 0.594 (0.161) × STA	575	Higher-forage	575	26.6	0.65	1.42	16.37	0.68
				EUR-HF	273	26.0	0.93	21.41	4.37	0.35
				NrAm-HF	269	24.7	0.56	16.08	20.02	0.78
				BRZ-HF	14	29.2	2.47	77.05	9.49	-0.04
[15]	DMI+EE_C	66.4 (9.5) + 13.3 (0.6) × DMI – 3.69 (1.56) × EE	644	Higher-forage	644	27.8	0.64	1.32	15.45	0.69
				EUR-HF	122	26.1	1.00	43.22	6.45	0.39
				NrAm-HF	394	28.4	0.61	18.29	28.79	0.73
				BRZ-HF	104	24.0	1.33	30.48	19.06	0.23
[16]	Diet_C		882	Higher-forage	852	27.9	0.61	0.49	15.52	0.72

		$23.4 (8.1) + 13.2 (0.5) \times \text{DMI} +$		EUR-HF	307	27.9	0.84	25.38	12.04	0.49
		$0.571 (0.080) \times \text{For}$		NrAm-HF	394	23.1	0.50	8.40	17.91	0.83
				BRZ-HF	75	22.6	1.21	14.48	25.25	0.28
[17]	Animal_C, Global_C	$-6.41 (8.31) + 11.3 (0.6) \times \text{DMI} +$	864	Higher-forage	852	24.6	0.54	0.80	14.74	0.80
		$0.557 (0.077) \times \text{For} + 0.0996$		Higher-forage <sup>‡</sup>	567	21.2	0.47	0.11	10.43	0.86
		$(0.0142) \times \text{BW}$		EUR-HF	307	24.5	0.73	18.25	11.11	0.61
				NrAm-HF	394	20.3	0.44	3.82	11.92	0.88
				BRZ-HF	75	21.2	1.14	1.36	27.11	0.22
[18]	Animal_no_DMI_C	$17.9 (10.4) + 0.732 (0.091) \times \text{For} +$	864	Higher-forage	852	30.8	0.67	0.01	13.23	0.65
		$0.226 (0.015) \times \text{BW}$		EUR-HF	307	26.3	0.79	14.80	11.89	0.52
				NrAm-HF	394	33.1	0.72	18.90	5.82	0.65
				BRZ-HF	75	27.0	1.45	31.74	25.94	-0.14
[19]	GLOBAL	$[0.063 (0.002) \times \text{GEI}] / 0.05565$	882	Higher-forage	852	24.6	0.54	2.12	1.37	0.82
	NETWORK Tier 2			Higher-forage <sup>‡,¶</sup>	852	24.0	0.52	0.14	0.62	0.83
[9]	IPCC Tier 2 (2006) ¶	$(0.065 \times \text{GEI}) / 0.05565$	-	Higher-forage <sup>‡</sup>	852	24.1	0.53	1.19	0.06	0.84
[20]	Charmley <i>et al.</i> (2016)	$21.0 \times \text{DMI}$		Higher-forage <sup>‡,l</sup>	829	25.4	0.57	0.10	0.05	0.81
[11]	Escobar-Bahamondes <i>et al.</i> (2017a)	$-35.0 + 0.08 \times \text{BW} + 1.2 \times \text{For} -$ $69.8 \times \text{EEI}^3 + 3.14 \times \text{GEI}$		Higher-forage <sup>‡,‡</sup>	567	23.1	0.51	9.61	1.56	0.86

1039 § Category acronyms (*e.g.*, DMI\_C) are explained in the ‘Model development’ subsection of the ‘Methods and Materials’ section.

1040 \* Equations are presented with regression coefficient standard errors in parenthesis; DMI = dry matter intake (kg d<sup>-1</sup>), NDF = dietary neutral

1041 detergent fiber (% of DM), STA = dietary starch (% of DM), EE = dietary ether extract (% of DM), For = dietary forage (% of DM), BW = body

1042 weight (kg), GEI = gross energy intake (MJ d<sup>-1</sup>), EEI = ether extract intake (kg d<sup>-1</sup>).

1043 ‡*n* = number of observations used to fit model equations.

1044 ‡Higher-forage = data associated with a forage content  $\geq 25\%$ , EUR-HF = European data associated with a forage content  $\geq 25\%$ , NrAm-HF =  
 1045 North American data associated with a forage content  $\geq 25\%$ , BRZ-HF = Brazilian data associated with a forage content  $\geq 25\%$ .  
 1046 ‡ $p$  = numbers of observations used for model evaluation.  
 1047 ¶IPCC = Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.  
 1048 ♪Performance was evaluated, not cross-validated.  
 1049 ♪No independent evaluation.  
 1050 ¶The 852 data points minus data from Tomkins *et al.* (2011) and Kennedy and Charmley (2012) to ensure independent evaluation.  
 1051 #The 852 data points minus data from Pinares-Patiño *et al.* (2003), Chaves *et al.* (2006), McGeough *et al.* (2010ab), Doreau *et al.* (2011), Staerfl  
 1052 *et al.* (2012), Hünnerberg *et al.* (2013ab) and Troy *et al.* (2015) to ensure independent evaluation.



1053 Table 5. Lower-forage CH<sub>4</sub> emission (g d<sup>-1</sup> animal<sup>-1</sup>) prediction equations and model performance using the lower-forage subset based on root  
1054 mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of mean), RMSPE-observations-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR), mean and slope bias (MB and SB; % of  
1055 mean square prediction error), and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC).

Model development					Model performance					
Eq.	Category§	Prediction equation*	<i>n</i> †	(Sub)set‡	<i>p</i> ‡	RMSPE, %	RSR	MB, %	SB, %	CCC
[20]	DMI_C, Diet_C, Animal_C, Global_C	46.6 (19.4) + 9.54 (1.80) × DMI	139	Lower-forage	139	28.4	0.94	4.81	0.03	0.26
[21]	DMI+NDF_C	112 (47) + 9.46 (1.79) × DMI – 2.58 (1.72) × NDF	139	Lower-forage	139	29.3	0.96	4.74	1.34	0.25
[22]	DMI+STA_C	42.0 (38.9) + 9.85 (1.88) × DMI + 0.0331 (0.7546) × STA	129	Lower-forage	129	34.5	1.11	3.70	20.18	0.23
[23]	DMI+EE_C	57.0 (18.1) + 8.84 (1.74) × DMI – 1.17 (2.03) × EE	110	Lower-forage	110	24.1	0.96	4.54	1.22	0.26
[24]	GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2	[0.045 (0.002) × GEI] / 0.05565	139	Lower-forage	139	27.9	0.92	3.13	3.02	0.39
				Lower-forage♫,♫	139	27.3	0.90	0.47	3.99	0.43
				Lower-forage♫,l	101	25.2	0.98	2.27	12.91	0.41
[25]	IPCC Tier 2 (2006) Lower-forage¶	(0.030 × GEI) / 0.05565	-	Lower-forage♫	139	42.1	1.38	59.60	0.08	0.17
				Lower-forage♫,l	101	39.0	1.51	64.08	0.35	0.16
[26]	Ellis <i>et al.</i> (2009); Eq. N	48.2 + 14.1 × DMI – 20.5 × (STA/NDF)		Lower-forage♫	129	27.8	0.89	0.26	2.04	0.41
[27]	Ellis <i>et al.</i> (2009); Eq. A	41.2 + 12.0 × DMI		Lower-forage♫	139	27.9	0.92	6.19	0.15	0.34

1056 §Category acronyms (*e.g.*, DMI\_C) are explained in the ‘Model development’ subsection of the ‘Methods and Materials’ section; no  
 1057 Animal\_no\_DMI\_C equation available.

1058 \*Equations are presented with regression coefficient standard errors in parenthesis; DMI = dry matter intake ( $\text{kg d}^{-1}$ ), NDF = dietary neutral  
 1059 detergent fiber (% of DM), STA = dietary starch (% of DM), EE = dietary ether extract (% of DM), GEI = gross energy intake ( $\text{MJ d}^{-1}$ ).

1060 † $n$  = number of observations used to fit model equations.

1061 ‡Lower-forage = data associated with a forage content  $\leq 18\%$ .

1062 † $p$  = numbers of observations used for model evaluation.

1063 ¶IPCC = Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

1064 ♪Performance was evaluated, not cross-validated.

1065 ♪No independent evaluation.

1066 ‖A subset containing  $\leq 10\%$  forage records only was used (as recommended by the IPCC, 2006)

1067 Table 6. European higher-forage CH<sub>4</sub> emission (g d<sup>-1</sup> animal<sup>-1</sup>) prediction equations for various categories and model performance based on root  
1068 mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of mean), RMSPE-observations-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR), mean and slope bias (MB and SB; % of  
1069 mean square prediction error), and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC).

Model development				Model performance						
Eq.	Category§	Prediction equation*	<i>n</i> †	(Sub)set‡	<i>p</i> ‡	RMSPE, %	RSR	MB, %	SB, %	CCC
[28]	DMI_C	60.5 (16.4) + 15.0 (1.4) × DMI	307	EUR-HF	307	26.3	0.79	4.86	15.69	0.48
[29]	DMI+NDF_C	38.1 (23.3) + 14.9 (1.4) × DMI + 0.598 (0.470) × NDF	307	EUR-HF	307	25.9	0.77	5.21	13.15	0.51
[30]	DMI+STA_C	92.4 (21.7) + 11.7 (2.0) × DMI + 0.113 (0.285) × STA	273	EUR-HF	273	25.6	0.92	9.92	2.20	0.30
[31]	DMI+EE_C	133 (34) + 14.5 (2.0) × DMI – 18.4 (6.6) × EE	122	EUR-HF	122	23.7	0.91	1.86	13.87	0.54
[32]	Diet_C	–20.9 (43.6) + 14.3 (2.0) × DMI + 4.04 (1.06) × NDF – 15.4 (3.8) × EE	122	EUR-HF	122	18.4	0.70	5.57	0.97	0.70
[33]	Animal_C	–102 (40.5) + 11.6 (2.1) × DMI + 3.74	122	EUR-HF	122	16.7	0.64	3.49	0.00	0.75
		(0.79) × NDF – 11.1 (3.0) × EE + 0.164 (0.054) × BW		EUR_HF‡	109	15.5	0.58	1.31	0.13	0.79
[34]	Animal_no_DMI_C	34.1 (18.7) + 0.287 (0.028) × BW	307	EUR-HF	307	27.0	0.81	10.37	3.73	0.50
[35]	Global_C	24.3 (17.7) + 9.37 (2.06) × DMI + 0.153 (0.040) × BW	307	EUR-HF	307	24.5	0.73	8.88	11.91	0.58
[36]	GLOBAL	[0.066 (0.003) × GEI] / 0.05565	307	EUR-HF	307	22.9	0.69	7.03	2.04	0.68
	NETWORK Tier 2			EUR-HF♫,♫	307	21.8	0.65	1.89	1.34	0.71

[9]	IPCC Tier 2, 2006¶	$(0.065 \times \text{GEI}) / 0.05565$	-	EUR-HF♯	307	22.0	0.66	3.54	1.61	0.71
[37]	Charmley <i>et al.</i> (2016)	$-15.3 + 24.7 \times \text{DMI}$		EUR-HF♯	307	21.9	0.66	0.61	0.16	0.72
					122	19.7	0.75	2.09	3.18	0.66
[11]	Escobar-Bahamondes <i>et al.</i> (2017a)	$-35.0 + 0.08 \times \text{BW} + 1.2 \times \text{For} - 69.8 \times \text{EEI}^3 + 3.14 \times \text{GEI}$		EUR-HF♯,‡	109	16.0	0.60	0.61	0.37	0.77

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1070 §Category acronyms (*e.g.*, DMI\_C) are explained in the ‘Model development’ subsection of the ‘Methods and Materials’ section.

1071 \*Equations are presented with regression coefficient standard errors in parenthesis; DMI = dry matter intake (kg d<sup>-1</sup>), NDF = dietary neutral

1072 detergent fiber (% of DM), STA = dietary starch (% of DM), EE = dietary ether extract (% of DM), BW = body weight (kg), GEI = gross energy

1073 intake (MJ d<sup>-1</sup>), EEI = ether extract intake (kg d<sup>-1</sup>).

1074 †*n* = number of observations used to fit model equations.

1075 ‡EUR-HF = European data associated with a forage content ≥ 25%.

1076 ‡*p* = numbers of observations used for model evaluation.

1077 ¶IPCC = Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

1078 ♯Performance was evaluated, not cross-validated.

1079 ♯No independent evaluation.

1080 # The 307 data points minus data from Pinares-Patiño *et al.* (2003), McGeough *et al.* (2010ab), Doreau *et al.* (2011), Staerfl *et al.* (2012) and Troy  
1081 *et al.* (2015) to ensure independent evaluation.

Table 7. North American higher-forage CH<sub>4</sub> emission (g d<sup>-1</sup> animal<sup>-1</sup>) prediction equations for various categories and model performance based on root mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of mean), RMSPE-observations-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR), mean and slope bias (MB and SB; % of mean square prediction error), and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC).

Eq.	Category§	Model development			Model performance					
		Prediction equation*	<i>n</i> †	(Sub)set‡	<i>p</i> ‡	RMSPE, %	RSR	MB, %	SB, %	CCC
[38]	DMI_C	33.9 (7.7) + 14.7 (0.6) × DMI	394	NrAm-HF	394	25.3	0.55	0.00	26.45	0.78
[39]	DMI+NDF_C	1.58 (8.30) + 14.2 (0.6) × DMI + 1.05 (0.16) × NDF	394	NrAm-HF	394	23.8	0.52	0.02	16.29	0.82
[40]	DMI+STA_C	89.7 (10.7) + 14.2 (0.8) × DMI – 1.17 (0.17) × STA	269	NrAm-HF	269	21.4	0.49	1.90	9.73	0.84
[41]	DMI+EE_C	43.7 (8.8) + 14.7 (0.6) × DMI – 3.72 (1.52) × EE	394	NrAm-HF	394	25.0	0.54	0.01	25.47	0.78
[42]	Diet_C	7.41 (7.12) + 14.1 (0.6) × DMI + 0.632 (0.069) × For	394	NrAm-HF	394	22.2	0.48	0.01	11.10	0.85
[43]	Animal_C,	–15.1 (7.5) + 12.7 (0.6) × DMI + 0.644 (0.066) × For + 0.0779 (0.0134) × BW	394	NrAm-HF	394	20.1	0.43	0.02	6.12	0.88
[44]	Animal_no_DMI_C	14.0 (12.3) + 0.965 (0.104) × For + 0.207 (0.018) × BW – 3.02 (0.95) × Ash	394	NrAm-HF	394	32.2	0.70	0.32	5.45	0.63
[45]	Global_C	–38.8 (10.9) + 12.7 (0.6) × DMI + 0.605 (0.066) × For + 1.61 (0.56) × CP + 0.0779 (0.0133) × BW	394	NrAm-HF	394	20.0	0.43	0.04	3.03	0.89
[46]	GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2	[0.063 (0.003) × GEI] / 0.05565	394	NrAm-HF	394	21.9	0.48	0.81	0.03	0.87
				NrAm-HF <sup>♯,♯♯</sup>	394	21.4	0.46	2.51	0.02	0.88
[9]	IPCC Tier 2, 2006¶	(0.065 × GEI) / 0.05565	-	NrAm-HF <sup>♯</sup>	394	22.2	0.48	8.70	0.50	0.88
[47]	Charmley <i>et al.</i> (2016)	20.5 × DMI		NrAm-HF <sup>♯</sup>	394	20.0	0.43	0.45	0.02	0.90

§Category acronyms (*e.g.*, DMI\_C) are explained in the ‘Model development’ subsection of the ‘Methods and Materials’ section.

1086 \*Equations are presented with regression coefficient standard errors in parenthesis; DMI = dry matter intake ( $\text{kg d}^{-1}$ ), NDF = dietary neutral  
1087 detergent fiber (% of DM), STA = dietary starch (% of DM), EE = dietary ether extract (% of DM), For = dietary forage (% of DM), GEI = gross  
1088 energy intake ( $\text{MJ d}^{-1}$ ), BW = body weight (kg).  
1089 † $n$  = number of observations used to fit model equations.  
1090 ‡NrAm-HF = North American data associated with a forage content  $\geq 25\%$ .  
1091 ‡ $p$  = numbers of observations used for model evaluation.  
1092 ¶IPCC = Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.  
1093 ♪Performance was evaluated, not cross-validated.  
1094 ♪No independent evaluation.

Figure 1. Observed vs. predicted plots for all-data methane emission ( $\text{g d}^{-1} \text{ animal}^{-1}$ ) prediction equations for the different categories, viz., dry matter intake (DMI\_C), dry matter intake and neutral detergent fiber (DMI+NDF\_C), dry matter intake and starch (DMI+STA\_C), dry matter intake and ether extract (DMI+EE\_C), diet (Diet\_C), animal (Animal\_C), animal without DMI (Animal\_no\_DMI\_C), GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2, IPCC Tier 2 (2006), and the extant Charmley *et al.* (2016) and Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017) equations. The gray and black solid lines represent the fitted regression line for the relationship between observed and predicted values, and the identity line ( $y = x$ ), respectively.

Figure 2. Observed vs. predicted plots for higher-forage methane emission ( $\text{g d}^{-1} \text{ animal}^{-1}$ ) prediction equations for the different categories, viz., dry matter intake (DMI\_C), dry matter intake and neutral detergent fiber (DMI+NDF\_C), dry matter intake and starch (DMI+STA\_C), dry matter intake and ether extract (DMI+EE\_C), diet (Diet\_C), animal (Animal\_C), animal without DMI (Animal\_no\_DMI\_C), GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2, IPCC Tier 2 (2006), and the extant Charmley *et al.* (2016) and Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017) equations. The gray and black solid lines represent the fitted regression line for the relationship between observed and predicted values, and the identity line ( $y = x$ ), respectively.

Figure 3. Observed vs. predicted plots for lower-forage methane emission ( $\text{g d}^{-1} \text{ animal}^{-1}$ ) prediction equations for the different categories, viz., dry matter intake (DMI\_C), dry matter intake and neutral detergent fiber (DMI+NDF\_C), dry matter intake and starch (DMI+STA\_C), dry matter intake and ether extract (DMI+EE\_C), GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2, IPCC Tier 2 (2006), and the extant Ellis *et al.* (2009) equations. The gray and black solid lines represent the



fitted regression line for the relationship between observed and predicted values, and the identity line ( $y = x$ ), respectively.

Figure 4. Observed vs. predicted plots for European higher-forage methane emission ( $\text{g d}^{-1} \text{ animal}^{-1}$ ) prediction equations for the different categories, viz., dry matter intake (DMI\_C), dry matter intake and neutral detergent fiber (DMI+NDF\_C), dry matter intake and starch (DMI+STA\_C), dry matter intake and ether extract (DMI+EE\_C), dietary (Diet\_C), animal (Animal\_C), animal without DMI (Animal\_no\_DMI\_C), global (Global\_C), GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2, and IPCC Tier 2 (2006), and the extant Charmley *et al.* (2016) and Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017) equations. The gray and black solid lines represent the fitted regression line for the relationship between observed and predicted values, and the identity line ( $y = x$ ), respectively.

Figure 5. Observed vs. predicted plots for North American higher-forage methane emission ( $\text{g d}^{-1} \text{ animal}^{-1}$ ) prediction equations for the different categories, viz., dry matter intake (DMI\_C), dry matter intake and neutral detergent fiber (DMI+NDF\_C), dry matter intake and starch (DMI+STA\_C), dry matter intake and ether extract (DMI+EE\_C), dietary (Diet\_C), animal (Animal\_C), animal without DMI (Animal\_no\_DMI\_C), global (Global\_C), GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 (2006), IPCC Tier 2 (2006), and the extant Charmley *et al.* (2016) equation. The gray and black solid lines represent the fitted regression line for the relationship between observed and predicted values, and the identity line ( $y = x$ ), respectively.